

THE INFLUENCE OF A TRANQUILIZING
DRUG (MEPROBAMATE) ON LEARNING
OF HIGH AND LOW ANXIETY GROUPS

by
ANDREW REED FARMACCI

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the more rapidly expanding trends in psychology in recent years has been the investigation of the significance of certain personality variables as they influence basic psychological processes in the human organism. For example, in the area of learning, a traditional major area of psychological research, this has been particularly true in the evaluation of the operation of emotional factors generally subsumed under the term anxiety. To an illustrative degree, study in this area has been influenced by the original findings of Taylor (1931) who some ten years ago reported findings concerning the relationship of anxiety to the conditioned eyelid response. In this defense conditioning study she reported that high drive (i.e., high anxiety) subjects were consistently superior in development and maintenance of conditioning performance as compared to low anxiety subjects. Investigations of a similar nature, heavily influenced by the low group (Spence and Parker, 1951; Spence and Taylor, 1953; Harris and Lerner, 1954) have, with relatively few exceptions (Wigford et al., 1953), tended to confirm her original findings.

More such investigation of the relationship between anxiety and learning were obtained to verbal learning performance, Taylor and Thompson (1955), and Spence, Parker and Ruffalo (1954), report a similar superiority in performance of high anxiety subjects in contrast to low anxiety

subjects. However, in learning situations where response competition was an intrinsic factor, such as in word learning (Parker and Spence, 1980), or in complex verbal learning (Spence et al., 1984; Botwinow, 1980), the reverse situation prevailed, i.e., low arousal subjects tended to be significantly superior.

Both as a basis for hypothesis formation and interpretation of results from this line of investigation, the free energy law used as a framework to develop learning theory (Gall, 1980), is now being expanded and elaborated in a general drive theory (Taylor, 1984; Spence, 1984). This position postulates a theoretical basis for differential learning performance based upon the presumed multiplicative interaction of all factors (x) activated in a given situation with the total effective drive state (E) operating at the moment. The product of this combination forms excitatory potential (X). It follows then that drive response strength is determined in part by excitatory potential, in a situation where a single task is needed, a higher drive level will have the effect of increasing the value of E and therefore, response strength. Taylor (1985) would predict, therefore, that in simple non-impulsional experimental learning situations, such as conditioning, the performance level of high drive subjects should be greater than for low drive subjects. However, in complex learning tasks, i.e., those involving the acquisition of a number of competing responses, higher drive levels do not necessarily lead to superior performance. For this situation attention must be given to the additional variables of excitatory inhibition and threshold. Consequently, first an array of competing responses, the one most likely to occur at a given moment will be the highest suprathreshold summatory excitatory strength (X). Specifically, the appearance of the correct

response involves vs. interactive between drive level and the number and comparative strengths of correct or incorrect tendencies. Accordingly, where the correct response is weaker than one or more of the competing response tendencies, the high drive groups are at a definite disadvantage. This is true because the stronger incorrect tendencies gain relatively more than the correct tendency in the case of the high drive subjects than in low drive subjects leading to a greater probability of occurrence of the stronger incorrect responses in the high drive group (Lewin, 1933; Taylor and Spence, 1953). A further tendency to which high drive groups are subject in that case, competing responses with very weak habit strengths may be brought over the threshold of \pm with the consequence that the probability of occurrence of the correct response is lowered relative to that in low drive conditions. The most extreme contrast in performance differential would be expected when both a large number of competing tendencies are present and the correct tendency is both relatively weak and low in the hierarchy. Increasing the strength of the correct tendency would be expected to close the performance gap between the two until a point is reached where high drive subjects are even superior (Simpson, 1953).

A two-phase, paired-comparison learning study by Spence et al., (1954), illustrates the sources of the above-described differential learning performance as a consequence of the interactive effects of anxiety level and positive vs. the response hierarchy of responses to be learned. The first phase of this study utilized a word list designed to produce anxious vasculature between the words in each pair while stabilizing instrumental learning. The list used in the second phase of this experiment was constructed designed to encourage instrumental

interference and decrease association within each pair. In keeping with drive theory predictions, in the case of the first task, the high anxiety group needed; they made significantly fewer errors and took fewer trials than did non-anxious subjects. However, in the case of competitive response task, anxious subjects required significantly more trials to reach criterion.

In the foregoing experiments, as in both prior and subsequent studies of this nature by the same group, the drive level variable has been manipulated by the choice of subjects on the basis of extreme scores on a scale of manifest anxiety (hereafter referred to as the *MAI*) derived used by Taylor (1931). Both Taylor (1931) and Spence (1956) in their use of the scale assume that drive level is a function of the magnitude and strength of a hypothetical response mechanism, i.e., a persisting emotional response to the response. A second assumption is that the intensity of this mechanism can be measured by paper-pencil tests of time of onset or earliest symptom of this state. That the use of the *MAI* as a measure of drive (X) may in the main task be overlooking the significance of the function of the low group, has been pointed out by Jessor and Bennett (1957). Spence (1956) has, nevertheless, defended its use on the grounds that it was, in fact, developed independently of the manner that was to be employed in testing the theoretical construct; that is, the performance measure is confounding and the learning situation.

Psychophysiological Research—In the past, studies dealing with human drive level (i.e., anxiety) and its relationship to learning performance have typically relied on relatively indirect measures of the drive variable. This has been largely accomplished through the use of selection procedures in which subjects are chosen on the basis of extreme scores on

paper-pencil tests measuring the variable in question. Indeed, until fairly recent advances in the development of stimulus collection, relatively direct manipulation of drive level has been unfeasible. Of the one proliferating development in such drugs, the drug *deprimazine* (trade name *Eltona*) has, since its discovery (Jaeger, 1954), been the object of considerable investigation both in clinical and laboratory settings. It has enjoyed widespread use for its purported efficacy in allaying anxiety and tension states (Jelinek, 1957; Brown, 1957) and, indeed, (1954). Unlike barbiturates which tend to create relatively widespread physiological effects, *deprimazine* has its site of action within the regulatory subcortical brain structures, i.e., the thalamus and inner cortical masses of the spinal cord (Jellinger, 1958). The behavioral consequences of the drug are then to produce calm without producing sleep. Torg (1954), in an appraisal of the pharmacological properties of several tranquilizing agents, notes that *deprimazine* has the capacity to elicit emotional responses with out interfering with skill, rational behavior and adequate responses to environmental stimuli. These features plus its low toxicity level and minimal side effects (Jaeger, 1957), due in large part to its lack of effect upon the autonomic nervous system and greater effectiveness with older anxiety states, make it an interesting one in terms of its possible alterations of anxiety level and subsequent influence upon psychological performance.

Jelinek (1957) performed such a study to determine the relative influence of *deprimazine* with normal subjects on performance on a battery of psychological tests. The subjects tested received the normal dosage of drug dosage within a six day period prior to testing. He found an improvement of speed of film movements, shortness, accuracy of visual-motor coordination, reaction time or complex problem solving ability.

Sanjola (1961), also using a population of fifty normal adult subjects, tested them on five consecutive days on measures of reaction time, driving skills, attendance and visual performance. In each of the five days subjects were tested following ingestion of one of four doses of either placebo, Papaverone and alcohol or a combination of these. Papaverone by itself appeared to have no significant influence on any of the performance measures.

Smith and Mills (1955) took the foregoing type of studies a step further by imposing a controlled stress (i.e., electric shock) producing situation upon a prolonged motor task. They hypothesized that tranquillizers, in this instance Thorazine and Papaverone, will allow subjects to perform more efficiently during non-painful trials than would a placebo. After the introduction of the drug variable their four groups were equivalent in pretest pencil apparatus performance. Likewise, there was no reported difference between these groups following ingestion of drugs; however, the introduction of a punishment variable resulted in varied trends upon performance levels in subsequent non-painful trials to which the groups responded in differential fashion. Of the four groups (Papaverone, Thorazine, Amobarbital and placebo), only the Papaverone group exhibited continued improvement in performance or continuing capacity for learning over consecutive trials following punishment. The authors conclude that Papaverone tends to abolish the disruptive effects of anxiety.

In contrast to the apparent stress relieving properties of Papaverone found in the foregoing experiment, Smith and Sanjola (1955) reported no difference between placebo and Papaverone conditions among fifty-one college student subjects. These subjects, acting as their own controls,

were tested on their ability to read aloud and simultaneously perform simple motor manipulations under conditions of delayed auditory feedback. Doseful doses of drug or placebo were administered thirty-five to forty-five minutes prior to performance proper. These authors, using a similar drug dosage as did Barplot (1961), likewise found no effect of naproxen-amine upon performance.

When the present study was initiated there were no accounts in the literature of investigation of the effects of naproxen-amine on verbal learning. In the meantime a few reports have appeared. Using sixty-one male and female subjects, Barplot and Barplot (1963) ran groups of eight to twelve persons in a competitive verbal learning situation, utilizing auditory feedback procedures used first developed by Spence et al. (1964). Prior to testing was a double-blind procedure, subjects were given three times the usual dosage of naproxen-amine, i.e., 150 mg. or three placebos. The learning task consisted of correctly anticipating, by writing, the response used before the sounding of a buzzer. They reported a higher rate of learning from the naproxen-amine subjects as compared to placebo subjects, a difference significant at the .05 level of confidence.

As one aspect of a larger study in which several broad parameters of the actions of three psychotropic agents were studied (i.e., desiphen, phenyltoloxamine, and a placebo), Brown et al. (1961) tested ten male subjects on a variety of psychological tasks. Subjects were informed they would be given stimulating agents, a placebo or a combination of these on three experimental days. Of the variety of tasks administered these subjects pertinent to the present study, is their performance in a paired-associate learning task involving a competitive response used first. These authors report some differential effects of phenyltoloxamine

and therefore upon this type of performance. This is neither one way speed or accuracy of learning facilitated as indicated by placebo comparison. In fact, the amphetamine group performance in trials was significantly better than that of the other conditions. To evaluate the possible drug effect on relative anxiety levels, the authors extracted data from the completed MPT tests. Their assessment of this variable was that, regardless of the drug taken, the high anxious subjects took an even longer time to reach criterion and made more errors than the low anxious subjects. They concluded that their findings were not consistent with their initial predictions based upon current psychiatric or psychological concepts of anxiety.

The existing evidence concerning the effects of tranquilizing agents upon verbal learning, taking into consideration relative degrees of subject anxiety is somewhat equivocal. Jurewicz and Burrows (1950) were purportedly testing hypotheses derived from Hullian theory. Yet there was an attempt to make rather than a gross statement of drug effect, in that an evaluation of subject anxiety level was made. Although Jones *et al.* (1955), testing a tranquilizing agent other than Meprobamate, made verbal learning performance comparisons of high and low anxious subjects, their correlated sample values seem doubtful about their findings. It cannot be denied, in light of this relative paucity of knowledge in this area of psychopharmacology, to study more thoroughly the drug experiments on human learning performance. The use of this drug takes position relatively direct manipulations of motivation or drive level and therefore, opens up the possibility of relating the physiologic operation of a drug to existing learning theory. Accordingly the following hypotheses

present themselves:

1. The performance of high anxious subjects will be inferior to low anxious subjects on a complex verbal learning task.

2. The administration of the drug Meprobamate to high anxious subjects will have a facilitative effect upon their complex verbal learning performance.

3. The administration of Meprobamate to low anxious subjects will tend to impair their complex verbal learning performance.

CHAPTER 11

STUDY

Subjects.—The subjects of this study consisted of 35 male and female undergraduate psychology students, ranging in age from nineteen to twenty-seven years. All subjects were unpaid volunteers, though many received course credit for their participation. Subjects were randomly assigned into drug, placebo, and no-drug conditions in a prearranged order following a random number process. They were further subdivided into either a "high scorer" or "low scorer" group on the basis of their RAE scores. In contrast to the selection of extreme population samples, e.g., as followed by Taylor and others, the entire range of RAE scores was utilized. The cut-off score was, in this instance, arbitrarily set at the median of the obtained sample of RAE scores. In total, the groups of subjects were involved in this study. No special subject criteria were involved except that persons on a prior regimen of specialized medication, or those having known medical problems (e.g., alcoholism or psychiatric disturbances, etc.) were barred from the study. A second principal advantage for the purposes of this study derived from recruiting volunteers from the particular subject pool mentioned above, in that many, being freshmen, had recently undergone a medical examination prior to university admission which would have alerted them to possible contraindications of participation. Legislative considerations made it necessary for all subjects under age twenty-one to have a signed parental consent before acting as subjects.

(1960),—a self-type memory drum was used to present one of two Selection paired-associate word lists. Successive words were presented at the rate of one every five seconds. This included a 1.17 second selection interval. The intertrial rest period was five seconds in length. Both selection lists, consisting of two-syllable adjectives, were extracted from Sengco's (1949) word lists (Table 1).

TABLE 1.—Word lists of paired adjectives used in testing learning performance

List I		List II	
Selection	Response	Selection	Response
* Acute	Feeble	* Angry	Grate
Acid	Broadly	Bagging	Thorough
Assent	Leading	Blister	Excellent
* Aylele	Allege	* Blamey	Replete
Bedilla	Tender	Bar off	Recurrent
Spokenland	Marksmen	Removal	Brilliant
* Baring	Round	* Whaling	Spinal
Beyoy	Spoken	Gal had	The last
Bignost	Agile	Telamon	Smooth
* Bonyall	Pinch	* Bladder	Concealed
Belot	Reckless	Secret	Sublime
Barren	Endearing	Drivens	Thankful

One of the lists (List II, Table 1) was devised specifically for this study to test the generalizability of the methods and findings of Sengco (1949). The other list is the one developed and utilized by the test group. The main objective in the construction of both lists was to create a learning task in which interrelated associations could be established and, consequently, lateralized associations and forced similarity bias could be reduced. Starting with a core of four words, paired with four highly synonymous response words, two stimulus words, also relatively

synonym with each of the four base words (marked by asterisks, Table 1) were also selected. These latter words were then paired with response words for which they had high association values. As demonstrated by Spence *et al.* (1994), the effect of this type of list construction is to foster response competition as a consequence of the similarity of stimulus words. As a further aid towards achieving this goal, each item was presented in three different orders so as to preclude serial learning.

Drug Administration—Each subject, assigned to one of the pill condition and following a set of standardized instructions, was requested to report to the university infirmary wherein they received an envelope containing twelve pills. At the infirmary the pharmacist, under the direction of the infirmary medical director, dispensed either placebo or the drug to those subjects assigned to a pill condition on a prearranged random order basis. The pharmacist also maintained a record of what each subject received. The nature of the pills was not revealed to the subject nor was the experimenter aware of which group each subject fell into (i.e., drug versus placebo) until the conclusion of the experiment. To the extent that the pharmacist dispensing the pills was aware of the nature of the pills given to each individual subject, requirements for a complete double-blind control did not obtain in actuality.

Prior psychopharmacological studies, partly to maintain the likelihood of behavioral response, have typically resorted to the administration of a "no-drug" inactive dosage level of drug at a specified period of time prior to experimental testing. Subjects are then tested at presumed peak periods of maximal drug effect. In the present study, to avoid the artificiality of this procedure, and to allow for a more natural adaptation and buildup

of effect, it was decided that the average daily clinical dosage of the drug be employed for a period of three days prior to testing. Accordingly, subjects took four 400-mg. diphenhydramine tablets daily for a like number of placebo tablets in the control group for the aforementioned time period. Subjects were not required to follow a rigid time schedule for the ingestion of the pills except for the last one which was to be taken two hours before the testing session. The instruction about prescribed subjects advised only that pill taking be spaced evenly throughout the testing day. Since a rigorous control over such of the hospitalized subjects' pill taking was not feasible, an attempt was made, on the part of the experimenter, to create a production atmosphere regarding this aspect of subject behavior. In such, subjects were encouraged to inform the experimenter when unusual deviations from the prescribed pill taking regimen had occurred. In this instance subjects were free to drop out of the study or, when they preferred, they were allowed to resume a new session after a suitable time period. In this situation the only practical control to determine if subjects had actually taken the pills was to simply ask them at the time of testing.

Experiment—At the experimental session subjects were required to learn one of two, verbal lists, paired-associate word lists to a criterion of ten consecutive errorless trials. Subjects were presented with directions to read, describing the nature of the task. This had the effect of standardizing instructions for all subjects. In essence, the operation instructions for all subjects described the verbalization method, the technique to be employed in the learning process.

Each stimulus list was presented in three different sequential orders

to prevent serial learning. In addition, the lists were counterbalanced in their presentation to the individuals comprising the several groups tested.

A "t" test of the difference between scores for the two lists was employed following the data collection. No significant differences were observed.

Every subject in this study underwent the above-described individual sequence; subjects were tested either under a drug, placebo, or a condition of no pills.

Following the learning of the list, subjects were asked to complete the list, then this was accomplished a third informal interview aimed to obtain certain identifying data and to determine the relevance and nature of pharmacological experience skills in the pill taking sequence. Another function served by the interview was to determine subjects' reactions to any stimuli pertaining to learning procedures. The primary function of this interview was, however, to ascertain, as best as possible, whether the subjects in the pill groups had taken all the pills as directed and had not subjected his or herself to unusual internal or external conditions which would tend to invalidate his or her experimental performance and lead to ambiguous data. For example, data from subjects who subjected to taking other medication during their course as subjects had to be eliminated. This was equally important procedure for the sample/no sample group.

In the early phase of this study, this informal interview was followed by a test of retention at three specified time periods ranging from fifteen to thirty minutes. This test of memory was later abandoned as an experiment

of study when it became apparent that in this relatively short time period following original learning, there was little, or no, variation in retention regardless of group or condition.

Scoring.—Performance measures included both the number of correct anticipations and the number of errors needed to reach criterion. Error scores consisted of both every indication of incorrect response as well as instances of no response. When it appeared that a subject's correct response occurred simultaneously with the appearance of appropriate response in the memory stem stimulus, the subject was given credit for that word pair.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

In order to test the hypotheses set forth in the first chapter, a three-way factorial analysis of variance design was employed. The dependent variables being tested were trials and error means as learning criterion for each subject. Preliminary analysis indicated possible performance differences between groups; therefore, sex was included in the analysis as a source of variation. In both major analyses a method for dealing with unequal cell frequencies (of a two-way table in this instance) was employed (Johar and Lee, 1981).

Trials Analysis.—The pattern of performance produced, both in terms of a significant differential performance level for high and low anxiety groups, as well as for a treatment-anxiety level interaction, did not obtain. Table 3 reveals the only significant source of variation to be attributable to sex differences. The F for sex was 5.41, highly significant beyond the .001 level of confidence ($p < .01$). Examination of mean response scores in Table 3 shows this difference to reflect the superiority of female subjects over male subjects, regardless of anxiety level or treatment group.

A breakdown of the total group according to the independent variables of treatments and anxiety level reveals a poorer performance for both the 40 drug and 40 placebo groups as compared to a non-pill control group (Table 4). This trend may also be observed in Figure 1 in which percentages of the total material learned per trial, are plotted. The fact that the

curves are not separate but do overlap at various points, attests to the fact that treatment effects are non-significant.

TABLE 1.--Analysis of variance of trials by criterion for ten anxiety groups under three treatment conditions

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Variance Estimate
Sex	422.8513	1	422.8513 *
Anxiety level	26.2949	9	2.9217
Drug	16.1894	2	8.0947
S x A	118.2989	1	118.2989
S x D	48.2328	2	24.1164
A x D	168.1444	2	84.0722
S x A x D	30.2310	2	15.1155
Within	1,793.9738	81	22.1478
Total	4,661.4716	94	

* $p < .001$.

The LA groups in the drug and placebo conditions, on the other hand, can be seen to have learned more rapidly than did not only their MA counterparts, but also learned more rapidly than did a LA non-pill control group. It may also be observed in Table 1 that the MA and LA non-pill groups were the most nearly alike of any of the between-anxiety level comparisons. More remarkable than this, however, is the truncated range of obtained mean scores above the single separating the best and worst performances any less than five mean trials.

TABLE 3.—Mean and standard deviation of criteria in criterion for all groups under all conditions.

Anxiety Level	Drug		Placebo		Nothing	
	N	SD	N	SD	N	SD
High	11	12.1448	14.4000	12.6666	15.1000	12.8000
	10	5.50	7.70	7.50	5.80	6.70
	21	6	6	6	10	10
Low	11	15.6250	14.8000	15.1667	14.8000	15.7500
	10	5.95	6.50	7.10	7.20	6.90
	21	8	6	6	10	8

TABLE 4.—Mean criteria in criterion and standard deviations by group membership.

Anxiety Level	Drug			Placebo			Nothing		
	N	SD	SD	N	SD	SD	N	SD	SD
High	11	12.073	6.20	12	12.000	6.25	15	12.070	7.35
Low	11	14.945	5.35	11	14.945	5.93	15	15.710	7.86

Analysis of Error.—An analysis of variance of error scores, as in the case of the variance analysis from trials, show no significant treatment of effects or interactions (Table 5). An interaction of sex with anxiety level approaches ($P = 5.1\%$, $df = 1,11$), but falls short of statistical significance. Sex differences are again highly significant ($P = 10.1\%$ beyond the .101 level), with women mean more superior to the

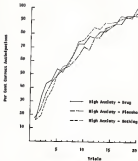


Figure 1.—Percentage of Correct Anticipations per Trial for High Anxiety Groups under Three Different Treatments.

men in their performance (Table 3).

TABLE 3. Analysis of variance of error scores on selection for two anxiety groups over three treatment conditions

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Variance Estimate
Sex	13,494.180	1	13,494.180 *
Anxiety level	387.8300	1	387.8300
Drug	824.3209	2	412.1604
Sex X A	4,490.7126	1	4490.7126
Sex X D	1,070.8700	2	535.4350
A X D	1,396.1543	2	698.0771
Sex X A X D	770.3218	2	385.1609
Within	110,734.2663	89	1234.092
Total	127,411.6380	94	

* $p < .001$.

When mean error scores are compared between the three treatment conditions according to anxiety level, it can be seen that the drug apparently had no influence on the scores made by the an group (Table 3). The LI drug group, in contrast made more errors in learning than did all other groups. This tendency is illustrated most vividly in a graphic comparison of the learning sessions of the three LI groups (Figure 2). Repetition of this finding, reference to Table 4 shows that this same group took four trials to reach criterion than did all other groups with the exception of the LI placebo group. The LI placebo group demonstrated overall superiority on both measures of learning. Their 10 participants

demonstrated the poorest overall performance of all groups tested.

Error score variation is, disregarding sex groupings, relatively small from group to group, and underlines the null hypothesis that such variation is merely representative of chance fluctuations.

TABLE 6.—Means and standard deviations of scores in articulation for all groups under all conditions

Auxiliary Level	Drug		Placebo		Surgery	
	N	P	N	P	N	P
High	M	25.1700	28.3700	24.3100	21.6600	24.7500
	SD	28.30	44.22	46.45	28.32	40.68
	n	6	7	4	6	10
Low	M	22.4000	26.4200	24.2000	22.0500	25.8100
	SD	24.75	28.20	32.10	22.68	24.21
	n	8	4	7	4	6

TABLE 7.—Mean error scores in articulation and standard deviations by group nationality

Auxiliary Level	Drug			Placebo			Surgery		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
High	10	24.2000	42.1	11	25.3636	24.4	10	24.0000	39.2
Low	22	21.1818	25.3	11	22.7273	21.5	14	24.0714	37.7

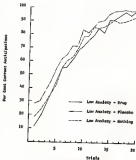


Figure 5.—Percentage of Correct Anticipations per trial for Low Anxiety Group under Three Different Treatments.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The general purpose of this study was to measure and investigate variations in learning performance as a function of drive level (3) manipulated through the use of a pharmacologic agent. Implicit in this statement of purpose is the basic assumption that drive differences exist between the experimental groups. Furthermore, it is assumed, on the basis of drive theory and some supporting scientific evidence that performance differentials on a learning task will result as a consequence of the interaction of varying drive levels and the number and strength of competing response tendencies.

In the present study the paired-associate learning task was devised to foster response generalization (i.e., it was a competitive response situation). The obtained *F* values for differences in performance between 3A and 3B groups fail to demonstrate the expected superiority of the 3A group. The trends, however, are in the expected direction and lead well, if non-significant evidence, to previous findings of studies of this nature (Taylor and Chapman, 1961; Spence et al., 1961).

In attempting to ascertain the reasons for this discrepancy, several possibilities present themselves. First of all, deviations from prior research procedures could be of some import. Essentially these deviations involve the use of a control group again as opposed to the use of across trial scores; the use of a newly devised stimulus word list, and a longer stimulus exposure and intertrial period, of these the first

can only be discussed on the basis of available knowledge. The definition of the low and high groups is quite arbitrary at best, and selected cut-off score points vary widely even among like researchers from study to study. The possible influence of differences in difficulty level between the two studies thus may be discussed on the basis of non-significant "t" tests for both trials and errors for the two lags. The last of the aforementioned possibilities (i.e., the stressed situation exposure time) could, of the three things mentioned, be of some consequence. It has to be assumed that the relatively short situation exposure times of paired-associate materials utilized in other investigations produced no element of psychological stress. It may be further speculated that this stress source utilized as one point for all subjects in a competitive response learning situation. Reducing the situation exposure time may well have significantly reduced the source of stress, leading to distinct but only marginally differential learning performances based on anxiety level differences. Having this for gone unconsidered, this aspect is something yet to be revealed. In addition to the reasons thus far offered to explain the present findings, is the nature of the sample. The persons who volunteered for this study knew that participation as a subject would involve the taking of pills. Thus this fact is considered along with the fact that no special inducement or compensation was offered subjects, there is a likelihood that the resultant sample was a more highly select, less heterogeneous group than could be found in other types of psychological research. Indeed, Richards (1961), reporting on a study of value versus non-valuation for research as a drug, found differences in personality of the two groups. Most significant for the present research was his statement that volunteers tend to be less representative of society

and deal with it by instinct. This plea for caution in drawing inferences from drug studies using volunteers is a point that has been emphasized by others (Gassner and Felsing, 1959).

In defense of the present findings it should be noted that there are a number of studies which have not upheld, or only partially upheld, drive theory predictions for learning performance outcomes based on drive level differences (Solomon *et al.*, 1954; Kahn and Kahn, 1957; Allport, *et al.*, 1951). In actually the Spence, Taylor, Gendel (1956) study reported only partial confirmation of predictions. This last study, which gave rise to the present one, found its subjects significantly superior to 48 subjects when learning involved a minimum of competition. However, when learning involved competing response tendencies, the predicted superiority of 48 subjects was only manifest in a trend, not in actual statistical significance.

In the face of inconsistency, often non-supportive research (primarily from the non-pun group) and under attack both for the limits of the Hullian derived drive theory (Hill, 1957) as well as for the construct validity of the HPI (Lissner and Hammond, 1957) there has been a reversion not to the Taylor-Spence position. In the case here Taylor has concluded that there are many other characteristics than drive level in which 48 and 48 subjects differ (Taylor, 1957). Spence (1958), while acknowledging the efficacy of drive theory in predicting the outcome of non-driving studies, is reluctant to extend present theorizing to include complex human learning. He now states that at its present stage of development, drive theory cannot accurately predict outcome of paired-associate learning beyond the first few trials.

Predictions relating to the major focus of this study, i.e., the use of Risperidone to alter drive level, and ultimately learning performance, have not been upheld. The trends are in the opposite direction from the predictions. For example, the 16 drug group took more trials to reach criterion than did the control (i.e., morphine) group. Error scores on the other hand for the 16 drug group showed a remarkable similarity with the morphine group.

In contrast to these findings, it is noted that the 16 drug group took fewer trials to reach criterion than did a morphine control group, pit mice were slower to drug up, when compared with other 16 groups. This latter point is a partial confirmation of the prediction that 16 drug subjects would show impaired learning performance under the influence of Risperidone.

It is interesting to note that the best learning performances occurred in the 16 placebo group. Their superiority over a control group is highly suggestive of a placebo effect (Jasper et al., 1974).

Examination of the data on the 16 placebo group shows it to have learned least efficiently. It could be speculated that the (observed) expectancy that something would occur as a consequence of pill taking causes interference with an already enhanced stimulus drive level. As a consequence of this interaction further impairment to learning efficiency is incurred.

In the evaluation of the negative findings regarding the influence of the drug variable, several factors should be considered. One of these has to do with the inability to impose the relatively rigorous controls which is possible in other types of psychological research with humans. Proper preparation of drug-naïve subjects was, at best, only indirectly

a result of the investigator's efforts. The responsibility for taking all pills at reasonably equivalent time intervals was left to the individual subjects. The investigator, in this instance, had to rely upon the statement of individual subjects that they had in fact consumed all the required pills. Clinical laboratory tests could have given a partial confirmation of the veracity of such statements. However, the exclusion of such an operation would have proved prohibitive.

Secondly, it would have been desirable to use at least the different drug dosage levels, preferably three, in order to establish a response curve. This was unworkable on two counts. The first of these has to do with the particular sample studied, i.e., college students. The use of elevated dosage levels would have increased seriously subject irritation situations.

More important, however, is the fact that the present study was not designed to be essentially psychopharmacologic in nature. The only purpose was to determine efficacy utilizing a normal drug dosage.

Another factor that should be considered is the nature of the drug itself, especially as this relates to the sample tested. Meprobamate is considered a relatively mild tranquilizing agent, whose efficacy in the treatment of anxiety is not entirely agreed upon (Lewin and Weiss, 1961). The population tested was a non-clinical one and could be assumed to be free of anxiety (as a patient group). The implication of this argument is that a mild drug may have little influence on an essentially "normal" sample.

The issues involving the nature of the population tested, and potential sex differences, are ones which have previously been considered, but are pertinent factors in this context as well.

Finally, the results relating to drug effects are generally in keeping with the results of other studies involving the use of hyperboreas with animal subjects. Generalizing from such results, it can be said that hyperboreas has neither a facilitating nor debilitating influence upon psychological performance (Julian, 1957; Krasner *et al.*, 1957). Only when external stress is imposed upon psychological performance does hyperboreas appear to influence performance (Gellinay and Ellis, 1958). This element of stress, perhaps lacking in the present study, may account for the positive findings reported by Krasner and Bertram (1958) who similarly investigated the influence of hyperboreas upon polio-vaccinate learning. In that instance, group testing procedures may have added an element of stress.

Sex Differences in Three-Dimensional Learning.--As noted in the report of results, the only significant performance differential was attributable to sex differences. The superiority of the female subjects is an unexpected one, both in terms of drive theory predictions, as well as in terms of the results of prior investigations. In only a few cases instances have sex differences been noted and reported upon in this area of research. Spence and Parker (1957) did note that women performed at a higher level than did men in conflicting performance. These authors made little of this finding since statistical significance did not obtain. In one of the other few instances in which possibly sex differences are mentioned as an aspect of the experimental design, Miller *et al.* (1954), reported a significant relationship between anxiety level in men and women with in a complex spatial learning task. This relationship did not hold up for women, for when a separate analysis was done,

Carlson and Carlson (1960) have recently stated that various difficulties can arise in studies using extreme groups which fail to test for sex differences. In this situation some differences between sexes may lead to an imbalance of sex in the groups selected for statistical analysis. They suggest for studies of extreme groups involving both sexes that samples be drawn from separate distributions according to sex. The general use of this procedure is seemingly aimed at studies of extreme groups, raises serious questions of doubt concerning the validity of reported conclusions in such studies.

Implications.--The major predictions being substantiated by these findings raise doubts relating to the ability of sex scores to accurately reflect drive level. Additionally, the adequacy and/or sufficiency of drive theory concepts, particularly as they pertain to presumed drive level interactions to determine performance, are also in doubt. The deviation of procedures involved in this study from those of the low group, plus other non-confirmation of drive theory predictions in which varying procedures were utilized, suggest that drive theory predictive qualities may be valid only within a limited range of conditions.

A major implication for future research in this area would be studies of the nature of drive level, its confirmation and influence upon psychological performance between sexes. Another study might consider, in addition to possible drive level-sex interactions, drug-sex interactions. The present study suggests for example, a greater response to both drug and placebo for sex as opposed to women. Finally, it would seem that in future drug studies, some attempt be made to assess the psychological meaning of pill taking to the subjects involved.

CHAPTER 1

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the influence of Depressants upon paired-associate verbal learning performance of high and low anxious groups.

Following the drive theory notions of Spence and Taylor for competitive response learning situations, it was predicted that high-anxious (i.e., high drive) subjects would be inferior to low drive subjects in their learning performance.

It was additionally hypothesized that this pattern of differential learning performance, predicted upon an interaction of drive level with the nature of the learning task, could be altered through the administration of Depressants. The resultant alteration was predicted to take the form of facilitation of learning for the high drive groups and impairment for the low drive groups.

The 80 volunteer undergraduate students (33 males and 47 females) comprising the subjects of this study were randomly divided into a pre-treatment or pill condition. Those in the latter category were assigned to either a placebo or drug condition. Further subdivision into high or low anxious groups was made for all subjects on the basis of their EMM scores.

Subjects taking either depressants or placebo were tested under double-blind procedures. A three day period of pill ingestion, utilizing a normal clinical dosage level for Depressants, preceded the experimental

session for the pilot groups.

All subjects at the test session were required to learn one of two pseudo-randomized word lists as a criterion of two consecutive error-free trials. The anticipation method was employed as in the learning process.

An analysis of the results failed to support the major hypothesis. Generally the results were in opposition to prediction. The implications of these results were discussed.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Andrew K. Perlmann was born on January 15, 1922 in New York, N.Y. He attended high school in Washington, D.C., graduating from McKinley High School in June, 1940.

He pursued undergraduate studies at the University of Maryland where he received the Bachelor of Arts degree in June, 1943. Following graduation he served in the United States Army.

In September, 1943 he initiated graduate study at George Washington University. He was awarded the degree of Master of Arts in 1944. In the meantime he had enrolled at the University of Florida where he was a graduate assistant in the Reading Clinic. He was later employed as a Research Associate in the Department of Psychiatry at the J. Hillis Miller Health Center.

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the chairman of the candidate's supervisory committee and has been approved by all members of that committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate Council, and was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Dean, College of Arts and Sciences


Graduate Council

Supervisory Committee





